

# Changes in satellite retrievals of atmospheric composition over eastern China during the 2020 COVID-19 lockdowns

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**Abstract.** We examined daily Level-3 satellite retrievals of AIRS CO, OMI SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>, and MODIS AOD over eastern China to understand how COVID-19 lockdowns affected atmospheric composition. Changes in 2020 were strongly dependent on the choice of background period since 2005 and whether trends in atmospheric composition were accounted for. Over central east China during the January 23 - April 8 lockdown window, CO in 2020 was between 3% and 12% lower than average depending on the background period. 2020 CO was not consistently less than expected from trends beginning between 2005 and 2016 and ending in 2019 but was 3-4% lower than the background mean during the 2017-2019 period when CO changes had flattened. Similarly for AOD, 2020 was between 14% and 30% lower than averages beginning in 2005 and 14-17% lower compared to different background means beginning in 2016. NO<sub>2</sub> in 2020 was between 30% and 43% lower than the mean over different background periods and between 17% and 33% lower than what would be expected for trends beginning later than 2011. Relative to the 2016-2019 period when NO<sub>2</sub> had flattened, 2020 was 30-33% lower. Over southern China, 2020 NO<sub>2</sub> was between 23% and 27% lower than different background means beginning in 2013, the beginning of a period of persistently lower NO<sub>2</sub>. CO over southern China was significantly higher in 2020 than what would be expected, which we suggest was partly because of an active fire season in neighbouring countries. Over central east and southern China, 2020 SO<sub>2</sub> was higher than expected, but this depended strongly on how daily regional values were calculated from individual retrievals and reflects background values approaching the retrieval detection limit. Future work over China, or other regions, needs to take into account the sensitivity of differences in 2020 to different background periods and trends in order to separate the effects of COVID-19 on air quality from previously occurring changes, or from variability in other sources.

## 1 Introduction

In an effort to control the spread of COVID-19, the Chinese government implemented a range of restrictions on movement. These led to reductions in industrial and other work related and personal activities starting January 23, 2020 in Wuhan, Hubei province, then extending to other cities and regions in the days that followed. On April 8, 2020, Wuhan was the last city to re-open after a complete lockdown that prevented most people from leaving their homes. These measures have been linked to changes in air quality. A network of surface monitoring stations in northern China observed 35% decreases in PM<sub>2.5</sub> and 60% decreases in NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations during January 29 through February 29, as compared to the preceding three weeks; CO and SO<sub>2</sub> also declined (Shi and Brasseur, 2020). In and around Wuhan, decreases of NO<sub>2</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> were similar to regional changes, but there was a slight

39 increase in SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (Shi and Brasseur, 2020). Observations by the Tropospheric Monitoring Instrument  
40 (TROPOMI) showed large decreases in tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column densities over Chinese cities, on the order of  
41 40% for February 11 to March 24 2020 compared to the same period in 2019, ranging from roughly 25% for cities  
42 not affected by lockdown to 60% for Wuhan and Xi'an (Bauwens et al., 2020). Prospective simulations suggested  
43 that meteorology may limit the effect of reduced emissions on PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations, with Chinese cities  
44 experiencing less than 20% reductions (Wang et al., 2020).

45

46 The goal of our study was to consider these changes against pollution trends in China using NASA Earth  
47 Observing System data by combining several products to give a holistic view covering several emission sectors  
48 that are responsible for the observed changes. Over the last 2 to 3 decades, air pollution in China appears to have  
49 followed the pattern described by the Environmental Kuznets Curve (Selden and Song, 1994). This framework  
50 describes a relationship in which economic growth is initially accompanied by an increase in air pollution, when  
51 poverty remains widespread. But as growth continues, air pollution is expected to level off and decline as a  
52 consequence of changes in social awareness of environmental degradation and the economic, political, and  
53 technological capacity to limit it (Sarkodie and Strezov, 2019; Selden and Song, 1994).

54

55 Bottom-up and top-down assessments of air pollutant emissions and concentrations suggest that China has  
56 followed this pattern during the era of satellite monitoring of atmospheric composition, with concentrations of  
57 SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, and aerosol optical depth (AOD) mostly exhibiting marked and steady declines over the last  
58 decade. In the case of NO<sub>2</sub>, multi-instrument analyses, which extend the observational record beyond the lifetime  
59 of a single instrument, depict a consistent regional picture of NO<sub>2</sub> trends in China since 1996 (Geddes et al.,  
60 2016; Georgoulias et al., 2019; Wang and Wang, 2020; Xu et al., 2020). Column totals show an increasing trend  
61 during the first part of the satellite record, but this trend is reversed sometime between 2010 and 2014 (Georgoulias  
62 et al., 2019; Krotkov et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2020; Si et al., 2019; Shah et al., 2020). The trend reversal  
63 has been attributed to a combination of emission control measures (Zheng et al., 2018a) and variations in economic  
64 growth (Krotkov et al., 2016).

65

66 Bottom-up estimates suggest that SO<sub>2</sub> emissions peaked earlier, with declines starting around 2005, primarily as  
67 a result of power and industrial pollution control measures as well as the elimination of small industrial boilers  
68 (Sun et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2018b). An earlier peak in SO<sub>2</sub> emissions is consistent with observations by multiple  
69 satellite instruments, which revealed declines in SO<sub>2</sub> column densities since 2005 (Fioletov et al., 2016; Krotkov  
70 et al., 2016; Wang and Wang, 2020; Zhang et al., 2017; Si et al., 2019).

71

72 AOD retrievals from the Along Track Scanning Radiometer instruments show a steady increase over southeastern  
73 China from 1995 to 2005 (Sogacheva et al., 2020), and a decline since 2005 in the MODIS AOD (He et al., 2019).  
74 The AOD peak has been argued to match either the ~2011 peak in NO<sub>2</sub> (Zheng et al., 2018b; Xie et al., 2019), the  
75 ~2005 peak of SO<sub>2</sub>, or to have occurred at some point in between (Ma et al., 2016), with more rapid decreases in  
76 AOD after 2011 (Lin et al., 2018). The recent decrease in AOD is also seen in VIIRS retrievals (Sogacheva et al.,  
77 2020). Most mitigation of direct PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions since 2010 was by industry, with residential emissions also  
78 decreasing substantially (Zheng et al., 2018b). The decline in SO<sub>2</sub> emissions also exerted an important influence,

79 with the sulfate concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> decreasing substantially between 2013 and 2017 (Shao et al., 2018),  
80 reflecting the negative trend in SO<sub>2</sub> emissions.

81

82 The peak in concentrations of CO, which has an atmospheric lifetime ranging from weeks to months, is less easily  
83 identified. Some studies suggest that trends have been negative potentially throughout the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Han et al.,  
84 2018;Strode et al., 2016;Wang et al., 2018;Yumimoto et al., 2014;Zheng et al., 2018a), but others suggest that  
85 emissions and/or column densities were increasing or flat during at least the first decade of the century (Sun et  
86 al., 2018;Zhao et al., 2013;Zhao et al., 2012). The negative trend has been attributed largely to reductions in  
87 emissions from industrial activity, as well as from residential and transportation sectors (Zheng et al.,  
88 2018a;Zheng et al., 2018b).

89

90 In addition to these long-term trends, a number of air pollutants also exhibit strong seasonal variation in China.  
91 Anthropogenic emissions of CO, SO<sub>2</sub>, and PM<sub>2.5</sub> are highest in winter, reflecting large variation in emissions from  
92 the residential sector and, in the case of CO, increased emissions associated with cold-start processes in the  
93 transportation sector (Li et al., 2017). Outflow of CO and AOD has a spring maximum, resulting from transport  
94 of pollution, dust, and boreal biomass burning emissions (Han et al., 2018;Luan and Jaegle, 2013).

95

96 Changes in pollution over China have also come from short-term interventions. To improve air quality for the  
97 2008 summer Olympics—a time when emissions in China were high and still increasing—the Chinese  
98 government imposed a series of strict emissions control measures from July through September 21, 2008, which  
99 were qualitatively similar to the emissions reductions expected to have accompanied the COVID-19 lockdown  
100 (UNEP, 2009). As a result, NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations over Beijing were estimated to have declined by between 40%  
101 and 60% based on satellite observations, with substantial but smaller reductions in surrounding cities often on the  
102 order of 20% to 30% compared to previous years (Mijling et al., 2009;Witte et al., 2009). Regional reductions of  
103 SO<sub>2</sub> and CO during the months of the games were estimated to be 13% and 19%, respectively (Witte et al., 2009).  
104 These results are broadly consistent with on-road observations (Wang et al., 2009), but larger than some surface  
105 observations comparing concentrations before and after the emission control measures were implemented (Wang  
106 et al., 2010).

107

108 The COVID-related lockdowns provide a similar natural experiment to the 2008 Beijing Olympics but on the  
109 other side of the Kuznets curve. The fact that the lockdowns occurred during years of decreasing air pollution  
110 needs to be taken into account in attributing changes in atmospheric composition to COVID-19 lockdowns,  
111 independent of the long-term trend. Following Chen et al.'s (2020) analysis of air quality improvements on  
112 mortality which controlled for changes in air quality since 2016, in this study we determine whether changes in  
113 2020 in satellite retrievals of CO, SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and AOD departed significantly from the expected declines associated  
114 with the long-term decreases in concentrations resulting from pollution controls and technological change.

## 115 **2 Data and methods**

116 We used daily Level-3 (L3) retrievals from four different instruments on three different NASA Earth Observing  
117 System satellites. The Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) instrument aboard NASA's Aqua satellite is a 2300-

118 channel infrared grating spectrometer in a sun-synchronous orbit with northward equator crossing time of 1:30  
119 PM. AIRS carbon monoxide (CO) profiles are retrieved with horizontal resolution of 45 km at nadir, in a swath  
120 of width 30 fields-of-view or about 1600 km. The retrieval uses a cloud-clearing methodology providing CO with  
121 sensitivity that peaks around 500 hPa, with  $\sim 0.8$ - $1.2$  degrees-of-freedom-of-signal for 50-70% of scenes. More  
122 sampling and higher information content is obtained in clear scenes (Warner et al., 2013). We used the daily  
123 version 6 (AIRS3STD.006) product.

124

125 The Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) aboard NASA's Aura satellite was launched in July 2004, and has a  
126 local equator-crossing time of roughly 13:45. OMI is a nadir-viewing spectrometer, which measures solar  
127 backscatter in the UV-visible range (Krotkov, 2013). We used NASA's L3 tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column density  
128 Standard Product v3 (OMNO2d\_003), and the OMI Principal Components Analysis Planetary Boundary Layer  
129 (PBL) SO<sub>2</sub> product (OMSO2e\_003), which grid retrievals to 0.25° resolution (Krotkov et al., 2017; Li et al., 2013).  
130 Both products are cloud-screened; only pixels that are at least 70% cloud-free are included in the NO<sub>2</sub> product,  
131 and those that are at least 80% cloud-free are included in the SO<sub>2</sub> product. The NO<sub>2</sub> product relies on air mass  
132 factors (AMFs) calculated with the assistance of an atmospheric chemical transport model and are sensitive to  
133 model representations of emission, chemistry, and transport data. Instead of AMFs, the SO<sub>2</sub> product uses  
134 spectrally-dependent SO<sub>2</sub> Jacobians, but can be interpreted as having a fixed AMF that is representative of  
135 summertime conditions. We applied basic transient SO<sub>2</sub> plume filtering, excluding retrievals with SO<sub>2</sub> > 15 DU  
136 (Wang and Wang, 2020).

137

138 Because our trend analysis uses a seasonal mean as the response variable, we assume that random errors cancel  
139 out, leaving only systematic errors, which do not contribute to uncertainty in the trend analysis. Systematic errors  
140 in the OMI NO<sub>2</sub> product have an uncertainty of 20% (McLinden et al., 2014) and are associated with AMFs and  
141 tropospheric vertical column contents. The OMI NO<sub>2</sub> products use an implicit aerosol correction to account for  
142 the optical effects of aerosols, but retrievals can be biased when aerosol loading is extreme (Castellanos et al.,  
143 2015). Under these conditions, the OMI NO<sub>2</sub> retrieval is biased low by roughly 20 to 40% (Chimot et al., 2016).  
144 Note that any aerosol-related error would have the potential effect of underestimating the magnitude of decreases  
145 in NO<sub>2</sub> column densities when comparing 2020 to previous years. Additional bias in the NO<sub>2</sub> product may be  
146 introduced due to the reliance on nearly cloud-free pixels, in which greater sunlight may induce higher  
147 photochemical rates. For example, the current NO<sub>2</sub> product is biased roughly 30% low over the Canadian oil sands  
148 (McLinden et al., 2014). The level-2 OMI- NO<sub>2</sub> product has been validated against in situ and surface-based  
149 observations showing good agreement (Lamsal et al., 2014). The use of fixed Jacobians in the SO<sub>2</sub> product  
150 introduces systematic errors of 50 to 100% for cloud-free observations (Krotkov et al., 2016).

151

152 Starting in 2007, the quality of level 1B radiance data for some OMI viewing directions has been affected, known  
153 as the row anomaly. The L3 products used here exclude all pixels affected by the row anomaly from each  
154 observation, but the locations of the row anomaly pixels were dynamic between 2007 and 2011, which could  
155 affect any comparisons including those years. Since 2011, the pixels affected by the row anomaly problem are the  
156 same, so comparisons for data only since 2011 are not affected by changes in the row anomaly.

157

158 Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) sensors observe the Earth from polar orbit, from Terra  
159 satellite since 2000 and from Aqua since mid 2002. In this study we use MODIS-derived AOD at 550nm obtained  
160 by merging Dark Target and Deep Blue retrievals (Sayer et al., 2014). Specifically, we use the  
161 Deep\_Blue\_Aerosol\_Optical\_Depth\_550\_Land\_Mean field over land and the over ocean  
162 AOD\_550\_Dark\_Target\_Deep\_Blue\_Combined\_Mean the from Collection 6.1 L3 Gridded products MYD08 and  
163 MOD08 (Hubanks et al., 2019), though very few retrievals over ocean are included in our analysis. L3 values are  
164 computed on  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  spatial grid from L2 AOD products with resolution of 10x10 km. Over land 66% of MODIS-  
165 retrieved Dark-target AOD values were shown to be  $\pm 0.05 \pm 0.15 * \text{AOD}$  AERONET-observed values, with high  
166 correlation ( $R = 0.9$ ) (Levy et al., 2010). Around 78% of the Deep Blue retrievals are within the expected error  
167 range of  $\pm 0.05 \pm 0.20 * \text{AOD}$  (Sayer et al., 2013). MODIS AOD data have been extensively used by the modeling  
168 and remote sensing scientific communities and inter-compared with a wide range of satellite AOD products (see  
169 Schutgens et al. (2020) and references therein).

170

171 We analyzed these retrievals over two large regions (Fig. 1). Central east China was comprised of Shaanxi, Hubei,  
172 Anhui, Jiangsu, Shanxi, Henan, Hebei, Shandong, Beijing, and Tianjin provinces. Southern China was comprised  
173 of Guizhou, Guangxi, Hunan, Jiangxi, Guangdong, Fujian and Zhejiang provinces. Daily mean quantities were  
174 calculated across all valid retrievals falling within the provinces comprising the regions. For the OMI NO<sub>2</sub>  
175 columns, individual retrievals were weighted by the L3 ‘Weight’ field, which is proportional to the fraction of the  
176 grid cell with higher-quality retrievals, identified as those have less than 30% cloud fraction and not affected by  
177 the row anomaly problem. We also calculated the daily value from the median of all retrievals, to understand  
178 whether individual high values (mainly SO<sub>2</sub>) had any effect on the significance of trends or differences between  
179 2020 and different background periods. Monthly averages were calculated from the daily regional averages, with  
180 each day weighted in the monthly average by the number of valid retrievals so as to not overrepresent days with  
181 little satellite coverage or significant cloud cover. The monthly data were used to visually identify COVID-19  
182 related changes against background seasonality and trends since 2005.

183

184 We examined the difference in the distribution of daily data during the 2020 January 23 to April 8 lockdown  
185 period to the same period during previous years since 2005. We compared 2020 to 2019, to different background  
186 periods, and to the expected value for 2020 estimated from trends over different background periods. Given the  
187 uneven nature of changes in atmospheric composition over different parts of China identified in previous studies,  
188 background periods were defined for each possible starting year between 2005 and 2018 with each ending in  
189 2019. Retrieved quantities in 2020 were compared to the background means over each period and to the value  
190 expected for 2020 estimated from the linear trend over each period. We tested the significance of these differences  
191 using bootstrap resampling (Efron and Gong, 1983) with a resampling size of 2000.

192

193 We also considered how the analysis depended on how the lockdown period was defined. Emissions and pollution  
194 can decrease during the Chinese New Year holidays (Chen et al., 2020), which started as early as January 23 in  
195 2012 and as late as February 19 in 2015, complicating COVID-19 related analyses of atmospheric composition  
196 over China (Bauwens et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2020). The timing and extent of lockdowns also varied between  
197 provinces and we assume that ‘slowdowns’ could have happened before or after stricter, official lockdowns. For

198 example, ground and air transportation remaining below lockdown levels nationally at least through April 14,  
199 2020 (International Energy Agency, 2020). Excluding the holiday period from all years is a straightforward  
200 approach to excluding any New Year holiday effects but will exclude simultaneous lockdown effects during the  
201 initial, and presumably most strict, stages of the lockdown. Rather than specifying different combinations of New  
202 Year holiday period and provincial-level lockdown timing, we used January 23-April 8 as our baseline period  
203 (which will include all holiday periods since 2005), but examined the sensitivity of the statistics to the length of  
204 the lockdown period, namely a longer lockdown period beginning one week earlier and one week later, and a  
205 shorter lockdown period for February only. In interpreting the data, we put more confidence in 2020 differences  
206 that were insensitive to these choices.

## 207 3 Results

### 208 3.1 Regional patterns and seasonality

209 [Figure 2](#) shows the 2020 –2019 differences over China during the January 23-April 8 lockdown period  
210 for the four satellite-retrieved quantities. There were decreases of 5-10 ppbv in AIRS CO over central east China  
211 (Fig. 2a) and increases of 20-25 ppbv over southern China in 2020 compared to 2019. The increase in southern  
212 China is adjacent to a stronger positive CO anomaly over the upper Mekong regions of Myanmar, Thailand and  
213 Laos. There were no coherent regional changes in OMI SO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 2b), but rather smaller localized difference of  
214 either sign. There were decreases in NO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 2c) across central east China exceeding  $8 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup>  
215 coincident with the weaker decrease in CO. Over southern China, there were comparable differences over  
216 Guangdong province, with smaller differences elsewhere. There was a decrease in MODIS AOD (Fig. 2d) in  
217 central-east China coincident with the decreases in CO and NO<sub>2</sub>, but smaller in magnitude. There was a region of  
218 higher AOD in and northeast of the upper Mekong region coincident with the CO increase, both presumably  
219 because of biomass burning.

220  
221 To put the 2020/2019 difference maps in a longer-term and seasonal context, [Figure 3](#) shows monthly  
222 averages of the four retrieved quantities over central east China since 2005. There are seasonal CO peaks in  
223 March-April, June and September, with the minima usually in November and December ([Figure 3a](#)).  
224 There has been a decrease since 2005 in CO. The seasonal decrease from January to February in 2020 is similar  
225 to that which has occurred occasionally before, but the CO during February and March 2020 was the lowest for  
226 that time of the year since 2005. By April, CO had returned to levels typical of 2015-2019. The main  
227 characteristics of the monthly SO<sub>2</sub> over the region are that it has decreased since 2005 ([Figure 3b](#)), and  
228 that early 2020 SO<sub>2</sub> was within the range of recent levels. There is a strong seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> cycle ([Figure 3c](#)),  
229 with a July-August minimum, and December-January peak, which has been attributed to increased heating  
230 needs (Yu et al., 2017; Si et al., 2019) and longer chemical lifetime owing to lower OH and RO<sub>2</sub> (Shah et al.,  
231 2020). NO<sub>2</sub> has also decreased since 2011, and during most years, there is a departure from a smooth seasonal  
232 cycle in January and February associated with the Chinese New Year holiday period. January and February 2020  
233 NO<sub>2</sub> was considerably lower than previous years, increased during March, and had recovered to typical, recent  
234 levels by April. AOD has consistent seasonal peaks in summer which have been attributed to hygroscopic growth  
235 and agricultural residue burning (Filonchik et al., 2019), but had less regular seasonality otherwise, and has

236 decreased since 2011. AOD during February and particularly March of 2020 were lower than recent years, but  
237 during which time there was considerable variability in the monthly data.

238

239 ~~Figure 4~~ **Figure 4** shows the four retrieved quantities over southern China. There is a springtime maximum in CO  
240 (Fig. 4a), a less regular maximum during September-January, and an annual minimum in July. The range of CO  
241 is similar to central east China. CO over the last 5 years is lower than earlier in the record, and early 2020 CO was  
242 higher than recent years. SO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 4b) is lower than central east China and any seasonal cycle is also hard to  
243 identify. The high June 2011 values are due to the Nabro eruption in Ethiopia (Fromm et al., 2014) which is still  
244 apparent in the time series despite excluding individual SO<sub>2</sub> retrievals that are greater than 15 DU, and are due to  
245 a combination of higher overall background values and individual retrievals with very high (> 10 DU) SO<sub>2</sub>. NO<sub>2</sub>  
246 (Fig. 4c) is lower than over central east China, but both regions share a similar seasonality. NO<sub>2</sub> during January-  
247 April 2020 was slightly lower than in 2019. AOD (Fig. 4d) has weak seasonal peaks in October, March and June,  
248 has decreased since 2011, and 2020 fell within the range of 2015-2019.

249

### 250 **3.2 Central east China**

251 Figure 5 shows the CO, SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and AOD for January 23 – April 8 of each year over central east China as box  
252 and whisker plots with the median, interquartile range and 2.5<sup>th</sup> and 97.5<sup>th</sup> percentiles over all daily mean data as  
253 horizontal lines and the mean shown by the black dot. The associated statistics comparing 2020 and 2019 are  
254 provided in Table 1, and comparing 2020 to longer background periods with and without trends accounted for as  
255 supplementary Tables S1-S4. The AIRS CO is shown in Figure 5a. The variation during January 23 – April 8 of  
256 each year is due to weather-related factors and observational error. The mean CO of 133.5 ppbv in 2020 was 3.2%  
257 less than the 2019 mean of 137.9 ppbv, which was only marginally significant, having a 95% confidence interval  
258 (-6.3% - 0.1%) close to spanning 0. During years prior, there were increases and decreases in CO from year to  
259 year, but an overall decreasing trend since 2005. To quantify if the 2020 departure was significant against this  
260 background, we compared the distribution of observed 2020 CO to the background average and to that which  
261 might be expected given any trends over the background period. Because there was no obvious starting year for  
262 the background period, we considered different periods starting in each year between 2005 and 2018 and ending  
263 in 2019 (Fig. 6a, Table S1). The difference between 2020 and the background depended strongly on the starting  
264 year of the background period, ranging from -11.5% lower than the 2005-2019 mean to -3.1% lower than over  
265 2018-2019, but all were statistically significant. Significant trends over years beginning between 2005 and 2016  
266 (shown in Fig. 6a by the red line and shading) ranged between -1.5 ppbv yr<sup>-1</sup> when starting in 2013 to -3.6 ppbv  
267 yr<sup>-1</sup> if starting in 2016. The uncertainty in the trends increased for trends over shorter periods, and were,  
268 unsurprisingly, insignificant by 2017, with the 95% confidence intervals of the trends spanning 0. The differences  
269 between the observed 2020 mean and the value predicted from the trend (magenta line) varied inversely with the  
270 trend and was always negative, but, except for 2009, had 95% confidence intervals (magenta shading) spanning  
271 0, and therefore were not considered significant. For CO therefore, 2020 was significantly lower than the  
272 background period mean but not consistently lower than predicted given the decreasing trend during the  
273 background period, no matter how this period was defined. Results were similar for CO analysed closer to the  
274 surface at 850 hPa (not shown), but where the retrieval has less sensitivity.

275

276 OMI SO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 5b) fluctuated over 2005 to 2011 and declined steadily afterward during which variation also  
277 declined, becoming narrower to a degree not seen in the CO. The 2020 mean of 0.057 was 95% higher than the  
278 2019 mean of 0.031, but with a wide 95% confidence interval (15% - 250%). For different background periods  
279 (Table S2), 2020 SO<sub>2</sub> ranged from 83% less than the 2005-2019 mean to 30% less than the 2016-2019 mean, with  
280 insignificant differences compared to more recent periods. Trends varied significantly from to -0.03 yr<sup>-1</sup> over  
281 2005-2019 to -0.06 DU yr<sup>-1</sup> over 2012-2019 (Fig. 6b), during which the trend could explain a maximum of 32%  
282 of the variation in the data. For periods starting in 2007 and after, the observed 2020 mean was significantly higher  
283 than predicted. Relative to the value predicted from the 2012-2019 trend of -0.06, the observed 2020 SO<sub>2</sub> was  
284 200% higher; the large percent difference reflects a predicted value close to zero, and we note that the retrieved  
285 SO<sub>2</sub> can be negative for individual values and averages (Li et al., 2013; Wang and Wang 2020). The observed  
286 2020 SO<sub>2</sub> was much higher than expected from trends calculated over 2016-2019 when SO<sub>2</sub> was flat and with less  
287 variability, but the low SO<sub>2</sub> approaching the detection limit over this period make these estimates not particularly  
288 meaningful. Furthermore, the change in 2020 SO<sub>2</sub> was strongly dependent on whether daily values were calculated  
289 from the mean or median of individual values over the region. For most background periods (Figure S1b), the  
290 trends in the median values were still negative until 2015, but 2020 was only 8.4% higher than predicted from the  
291 2012-2019 trend and not significantly different from expected for trends beginning later. This likely reflects the  
292 greater influence of high individual retrieval values on the daily mean value compared to the median, even after  
293 the basic filtering of transient SO<sub>2</sub> plumes.

294

295 OMI NO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 5c) increased from 2005 to 2011 and decreased thereafter with an apparent flattening since 2016.  
296 The 2020 mean NO<sub>2</sub> of  $6.5 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup> was 32% less than the 2019 mean of  $9.6 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup>; the  
297 pronounced regional difference between 2020 and 2019 (Fig. 2c, Fig. 5c) in part reflects a 2019 uptick from 2018.  
298 For different background periods (Table S3), 2020 NO<sub>2</sub> ranged from 43.3% less than the 2010-2019 mean to 30%  
299 less than the 2018-2019 mean, with all differences significant. Trends were negative and significant for starting  
300 years between 2007 and 2015 (Fig. 6c) with the strongest trend of  $-0.75 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> for the period  
301 beginning in 2011. 2020 NO<sub>2</sub> was significantly less than the predicted value for all background periods but varied  
302 from 16.8% less than predicted from the 2011-2019 trend to 27.1% less than predicted from the 2015-2019 trend,  
303 the last period when there was a significant, although weak, decrease.

304

305 MODIS AOD (Fig. 5d) was flat or slightly increasing from 2005 to 2011, decreasing thereafter and with a  
306 flattening since 2016 similar to SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>. The 2020 mean AOD of 0.41 was 14% less than the 2019 mean of  
307 0.48, but this was not significant. For different background periods (Table S4), 2020 AOD ranged from 30.2%  
308 less than the 2007-2019 mean to 14.2% less than the 2018-2019 mean, with confidence intervals for the  
309 differences becoming closer to spanning 0 for more recent periods. Trends were negative and significant for  
310 starting years between 2005 and 2014 (Fig. 6d), with the strongest decrease of 0.04 yr<sup>-1</sup> over the 2012-2019 period.  
311 There was no significant difference between the observed and predicted 2020 mean for periods beginning in 2008  
312 and later, when the trends were strongest, and which approached 0 after 2014.



### 313 3.3 Southern China

314 Figure 7 shows the distribution of daily CO, SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and AOD for January 23-April 8 of each year over southern  
315 China. The associated statistics comparing 2020 and 2019 are provided in Table 2. AIRS CO (Fig. 7a) in 2020  
316 was 144.7 ppbv, 13% higher than the 2019 mean of 128.5 ppbv which can be seen in an upward shift in the  
317 distribution of the box plot. 2020 CO was between 4.4% and 8.8% greater than the background mean for periods  
318 starting after 2014 (Table S5), but not significantly different otherwise. CO decreased significantly for periods  
319 starting between 2005 and 2016 (Fig. 8a). When these trends are taken into account, 2020 CO was between 11.2%  
320 and 18.7% greater than predicted, and in all cases were significant.

321  
322 OMI SO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 7b) fluctuated from 2005 until 2013 and flattened afterwards, driven by fewer high individual SO<sub>2</sub>  
323 values in later years, as in central east China. The 2020 mean of 0.003 DU was 116% higher than the 2019 mean  
324 of -0.02 DU but also with a wide 95% confidence interval (24% - 223%). 2020 was less than the background  
325 mean periods starting between 2005 and 2011 (Table S6), but not significantly different otherwise. SO<sub>2</sub> trends  
326 were consistently negative for all periods (Fig. 8b), although not as strong as over central east China. Whether  
327 2020 SO<sub>2</sub> was greater than predicted from trends depended more on the background period than over central east  
328 China and were also not significantly different from predicted when daily values were calculated from the median  
329 SO<sub>2</sub> of individual retrievals for any background period (Figure S2b).

330  
331 OMI NO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 7c) increased toward 2011 and 2012, declining after to 2005-2010 levels. The 2020 mean of  
332  $3.3 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup> was 22% less than the 2019 mean of  $4.3 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup>. For longer background periods,  
333 2020 was between 22.9% and 30.6% less than the mean (Table S7), all of which were significant. NO<sub>2</sub> trends  
334 were significantly negative when the start of the trend was calculated using years between 2007 and 2012, but not  
335 otherwise (Fig. 8c). The 2020 NO<sub>2</sub> mean was significantly lower than predicted, except for when the trend was  
336 estimated beginning in 2011 or 2018. A two-year trend cannot be interpreted meaningfully, especially without  
337 considering meteorological differences. Visually, however, it is hard to tell if the 2020 NO<sub>2</sub> distribution represents  
338 a COVID-related departure or a decrease comparable to changes during recent previous years, unlike over central  
339 east China.

340  
341 MODIS AOD (Fig. 7d) was comparable to NO<sub>2</sub> in its increase toward 2012, decrease thereafter and flattening  
342 during more recent years. The 2020 mean AOD of 0.38 was 12% higher than the 2019 mean of 0.34, but with a  
343 95% confidence interval (-7% - 34%) spanning 0. Similarly, 2020 was between 14% and 22% lower than during  
344 background periods beginning from 2005 to 2012, but not for more recent periods (Table S8). The AOD trends  
345 were significantly negative for all start years until 2015. The 2020 mean was between 32 and 47% higher than  
346 predicted from trends for periods starting between 2010 and 2015, but was not different from predicted for trends  
347 starting in other years.

348  
349 For both regions and all quantities, the differences between observed and predicted values for 2020 were  
350 insensitive to a longer lockdown period, or to whether the bootstrap resampling was weighted by the number of  
351 valid retrievals each day. For a February-only lockdown period (Figures S3 and S4), the CO trends were more  
352 significant when starting in later years, but the differences between the observed and expected values remained

353 insignificant over central east China. The SO<sub>2</sub> trends for different periods were similar. The 2020 SO<sub>2</sub> differences  
354 from what would be expected approached 0 for later periods but were also not consistently different when the  
355 median values of individual retrievals were used. Results for NO<sub>2</sub> were unaffected. The AOD 2020 difference  
356 from what would be expected was stronger and technically significant, but still with a very wide confidence  
357 interval and therefore difficult to interpret. We emphasize that while a February-only lockdown period is useful  
358 for comparison, it is problematic in not including the New Year's holiday periods from all previous years.

#### 359 **4 Discussion and conclusions**

360 The degree to which the COVID-19 lockdowns in China resulted in changes in atmospheric composition depended  
361 strongly on the background period and whether existing trends were taken into account. For AIRS CO over central  
362 east China, the 2020 mean was 3-12% lower compared to different background periods. Relative to mean CO  
363 concentrations during periods beginning between 2005 and 2016, there were significant decreases in CO but CO  
364 in 2020 was not consistently different from what would be expected from trends calculated over this period. These  
365 longer-term declines in CO concentrations do appear to flatten out in recent years; assuming that the flat CO  
366 during 2017-2019 would have persisted, we estimate a 3-4% reduction in CO in 2020 relative to that period. For  
367 MODIS AOD, the 2020 mean was between 14% and 30% less than different background averages, but not  
368 significantly different from what would be expected for trends beginning between 2008 and 2014. As with CO  
369 trends, the negative AOD trends in the region also appear to flatten in recent years. Relative to the flat AOD over  
370 2016-2019, 2020 AOD was 14-17% lower than the background mean; as with CO, this range would be the more  
371 meaningful estimate of changes in 2020 if we assume that this flattening were to persist. 2020 SO<sub>2</sub> was  
372 significantly lower than background averages calculated over most periods, ranging from 83% less than over  
373 2005-2019 to 30% less than over 2016-2019. Compared to the 2012-2019 period when there were no significant  
374 SO<sub>2</sub> increases, 2020 SO<sub>2</sub> was 200% greater than what would be expected based on a trend starting in 2021, but  
375 only 8% greater when the median of daily retrievals was used, and not significantly different from expected  
376 relative to the trends beginning later than 2012. SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were relatively flat from 2016-2019; when  
377 using 2016 as the first year of the trend, SO<sub>2</sub> was significantly higher than the expected value when calculated  
378 from the mean of the daily SO<sub>2</sub> retrievals, but not significantly different when calculated from the median. We  
379 note also that analyses of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> that include years prior to 2012 may be affected by changes in observation  
380 sample size due to changes in the OMI row anomaly.

381  
382 OMI NO<sub>2</sub> in 2020 over central east China was consistently lower than the background average and expected value  
383 from the trends. There was a 17% decrease in 2020 relative to the value expected from a trend calculated over  
384 2011-2019, but a 30-33% decrease relative to the different background means since 2016 when the NO<sub>2</sub> was  
385 relatively flat. Again assuming that this flattening were to persist, this latter range may be the more meaningful  
386 baseline for the 2020 decrease. For reference, Bauwens et al. (2020) reported a ~40% drop in OMI NO<sub>2</sub> from  
387 2019 to 2020 over cities affected by the lockdown using the QA4ECV retrieval (Boersma et al., 2018), and a  
388 ~51% drop in NO<sub>2</sub> over the eight cities (Beijing, Jinan, Nanjing, Qingdao, Tianjin, Wuhan, Xi'an and Zhengzhou)  
389 falling within our central east China region. Our analysis cannot be compared directly because we include non-  
390 urban areas and define the lockdown period differently, but we do note that NO<sub>2</sub> during the same period in 2019

391 appeared to be anomalously high relative to the previous few years, which would make the decreases in 2020  
392 appear more significant.

393

394 The modest decreases in CO and AOD over central east China were unexpected; given its high population density  
395 and level of industrial activity, lockdowns may have been anticipated to lead to larger decreases. In the case of  
396 MODIS AOD, these modest decreases were possibly due to contributions from other sources unaffected by  
397 COVID-19 related lockdowns, limitations in the MODIS AOD retrieval under cloudy conditions, climatological  
398 variability from other sources such as mineral dust, and meteorology favourable to secondary aerosol formation  
399 which could have offset lower emissions (Wang et al., 2020). The 2020 increase in SO<sub>2</sub> is more difficult to  
400 interpret because of the discrepancies between daily values calculated from the mean or median of individual  
401 retrievals, but is broadly consistent with surface observations that find no significant change in in-situ surface SO<sub>2</sub>  
402 over Wuhan in the daily mean, and a slight increase in daytime SO<sub>2</sub> possibly associated with increased residential  
403 heating and cooking (Shi and Brasseur, 2020).

404

405 Over southern China retrieved 2020 SO<sub>2</sub> was significantly lower than the background average only for periods  
406 beginning between 2005 to 2011. Significant departures from expected trends were uneven when using the mean  
407 value of daily retrievals and absent when using the median value. As with central East China, we conclude that  
408 no significant changes could be robustly detected in 2020 SO<sub>2</sub>. NO<sub>2</sub> in 2020 was between 23% and 32% less than  
409 the background average for different periods. Here, the flattening in NO<sub>2</sub> beginning in 2013 is easier to identify  
410 than over central east China because of the much higher NO<sub>2</sub> during the three years prior; 2020 NO<sub>2</sub> was 23-27%  
411 less than different background means between 2013 and 2019. The more significant reductions in NO<sub>2</sub> in central  
412 east China compared to the south is presumably due the former's greater population and industrialization, and  
413 consequently higher pollution levels. This is consistent with Chen et al.'s (2020) detection of a larger 2020  
414 decrease in surface NO<sub>2</sub> in Wuhan compared to Shanghai. Retrieved CO in 2020 was between 4 and 8% greater  
415 than background averages beginning in 2014, but between 11% and 19% higher than what would be expected  
416 given the decreasing trends over any period. AOD in 2020 was lower than background averages calculated starting  
417 with years earlier than 2012, but higher or not significantly different from expected for trends calculated starting  
418 in years after 2012.

419

420 The focus of this analysis is on whether satellite retrievals of atmospheric composition over 2020 departed  
421 significantly from different background periods and expected values for 2020 when daily variability and trends  
422 are accounted for, but it is useful at a preliminary stage to speculate as to how different emissions changes could  
423 have contributed to 1) why NO<sub>2</sub> was robustly lower in 2020 over central east China compared to CO and AOD,  
424 and 2) why CO and perhaps AOD were higher over southern China compared to what would be expected from  
425 recent trends.

426

427 To understand why NO<sub>2</sub> differences over central east China were more significant than other quantities, Table 3  
428 shows the emissions by sector for a representative set of constituents from the Community Emissions Data System  
429 (CEDS) (Hoesly et al., 2018) over China for 2014, the most recent year available. Other bottom-up emissions  
430 inventories will vary in absolute emissions amounts and their sector contributions, particularly for more recent

431 periods, but CEDS is the standard available emissions dataset available globally as a baseline for the next IPCC  
432 assessment, in anticipation of assessing 2020 COVID-19 related changes to atmospheric composition in other  
433 regions, and for modeling studies involving a transboundary transport component. Across all species, energy  
434 production, industrial activity, transportation, residential/commercial/other (RCO), and waste disposal constitute  
435 the bulk of the emissions. Based on activity data for the first quarter of 2020, energy demand across China declined  
436 by 7% compared to 2019, and transportation sector activity declined by 50 to 75% in regions with lockdowns in  
437 place (International Energy Agency, 2020). These sectors are direct or indirect sources of numerous pollutants,  
438 including SO<sub>2</sub> (the precursor of sulfate aerosol), NO<sub>x</sub>, CO, and primary anthropogenic aerosols classified broadly  
439 as organic carbon (OC) and black carbon (BC). If we apply the 7% reduction in energy production and mid-point  
440 62.5% reduction to transportation from the IEA, assume a 20% reduction in industrial emissions, 5% reduction in  
441 waste emissions, no change in RCO (with commercial decreases offset by residential increases), this yields a 10%  
442 reduction in BC, 5% reduction in OC, 14% reduction in SO<sub>2</sub>, 14% reduction in CO and 21% reduction in NO<sub>2</sub>.  
443 The larger reduction in NO<sub>2</sub> relative to other emissions could partly explain why OMI NO<sub>2</sub> column density  
444 changes over central east China were stronger than in the other retrievals.

445

446 Following Si et al.'s (2019) consideration of biomass burning as a pollution source in China alongside  
447 anthropogenic sources, we considered transboundary smoke transport as a possible reason for the higher 2020 CO  
448 over southern China, guided by higher CO over the Upper Mekong region in 2020 compared to 2019 (Fig. 2a)  
449 and the predominant westerly flow during this time of year (Reid et al., 2013). Table 4 compares January 23-April  
450 8 AIRS CO over southern China to CO emissions estimates from biomass burning from the Global Fire  
451 Assimilation System (GFAS) (Kaiser et al., 2012) over the upper Mekong region (17° N to 25° N, 95° E to 105°  
452 E) including parts of eastern Myanmar, northern Thailand, and northern Laos. From 2005 to 2020, variation in  
453 GFAS CO over this region explained a moderate (32%) amount of variability in AIRS CO over southern China,  
454 suggesting it as a non-negligible contributor to variation in CO concentration, and a contributor to higher CO  
455 in 2020. This illustrates that, at a minimum, sources such as biomass burning smoke and dust that are less affected  
456 by COVID-19 related measures will complicate attribution studies. To that end, modeling studies following Wang  
457 et al. (2020) will be required to isolate emissions, meteorological and chemical drivers of changes in atmospheric  
458 composition and their effects at a process level. With proper instrument-equivalent comparisons, modelling  
459 studies will also help to identify the extent to which the lack of significant changes are due to retrieval limitations,  
460 namely low sensitivity near the surface where differences would presumably be more pronounced, particularly  
461 given remote emissions sources such as dust, biomass burning smoke and volcanic SO<sub>2</sub>, which will arrive at higher  
462 altitudes.

463

464 The key implication of our study is that interpreting differences in 2020 retrievals of atmospheric composition  
465 depends strongly on how the background period is defined and whether trends over these periods are accounted  
466 for. Not taking these into account could lead to misattribution of changes in air quality to COVID-19 lockdowns,  
467 or, at a minimum, that whether differences in 2020 are significant depend on the choice of background period,  
468 which is somewhat subjective. Leading up to 2020, there was an apparent flattening of decreasing trends beginning  
469 earlier in the decade across the retrievals; the considerable variability in the data made identifying this flattening  
470 easier in some cases than in others. We are more confident, for example, in our estimate of a 23-27% decrease in

471 2020 NO<sub>2</sub> over southern China relative to a flat background period than the 30-33% decrease over central East  
472 China, where the recent variability was greater and the flattening less apparent. Revisiting this type of analysis in  
473 the years when regional economies have fully recovered post COVID-19 will help to distinguish between further  
474 decreases and flat trends and will lend themselves to using non-linear models in estimating the trends. We have  
475 approached the issue by comparing data for 2020 to what would have been expected given recent trends and by  
476 applying a single lockdown period to two large regions, with additional analyses to gauge the sensitivity of the  
477 2020 differences to these choices. Other studies over China or elsewhere will inevitably use other approaches that  
478 more explicitly account for seasonality, meteorology, and which relate changes in pollution over smaller areas  
479 (e.g. single provinces or states) to region-specific lockdown measures and timing at a process level. Regardless  
480 of the approach, however, it is important to consider recent trends and variability. In places where pollution has  
481 decreased, not accounting for recent context could result in over-attribution of changes in pollution to COVID-  
482 19. In places where pollution has increased, such as parts of South Asia, this could result in under-attribution.

483 **Code/data availability:** All code will be made available if the article is accepted for final publication. All source  
484 data are publicly available.

485

486 **Competing interests:** The authors have no competing interests.

487

488 **Author contribution:** All authors conceived of the study. RF, IG and KT conducted the data analysis. RF and  
489 JH prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

490

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674

675 **Tables**

676

677 **Table 1. Summary statistics for central east China comparing 2020 and 2019 during January 23 – April 8.**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>2020 mean</b>	<b>2019 mean</b>	<b>2020 %</b>
			<b>difference from 2019</b>
<b>CO</b>	133.5	137.9	-3.2
(ppbv)	(130.3, 136.8)	(134.7, 141.3)	(-6.3, 0.1)
<b>SO<sub>2</sub></b>	0.057	0.031	95
(DU)	(0.045, 0.070)	(0.018, 0.046)	(14.8, 249.6)
<b>NO<sub>2</sub></b>	6.5	9.6	-32.1
(10 <sup>15</sup> molec cm <sup>-2</sup> )	(5.8, 7.2)	(8.7, 10.5)	(-42.1, -21.7)
<b>AOD</b>	0.41	0.48	-14.3
	(0.36, 0.46)	(0.41, 0.55)	(-29.4, 3.1)

678

679

680 **Table 2. Same as Table 1, but for southern China.**

Variable	2020 mean	2019 mean	2020 % difference from 2019
<b>CO</b> (ppbv)	144.7 (139.6, 150.3)	128.5 (124.4, 132.8)	12.6 (7.2, 18.3)
<b>SO<sub>2</sub></b> (DU)	0.003 (-0.01, 0.020)	-0.020 (-0.04, -0.001)	116 (24, 223)
<b>NO<sub>2</sub></b> (10 <sup>15</sup> molec cm <sup>-2</sup> )	3.3 (3.0, 3.7)	4.3 (3.9, 4.7)	-22.2 (-32.6, -10.4)
<b>AOD</b>	0.38 (0.34, 0.43)	0.34 (0.30, 0.39)	12 (-7, 34)

681

682 **Table 3. 2014 anthropogenic emissions estimates by sector (in %) over China, excluding biomass burning, from the**  
683 **Community Emissions Data System (CEDs) for a representative set of constituents: black carbon (BC), carbon monoxide**  
684 **(CO), ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>), nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>), organic carbon (OC) and sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>). Residential, commercial and**  
685 **other sectors are combined as RCO.**

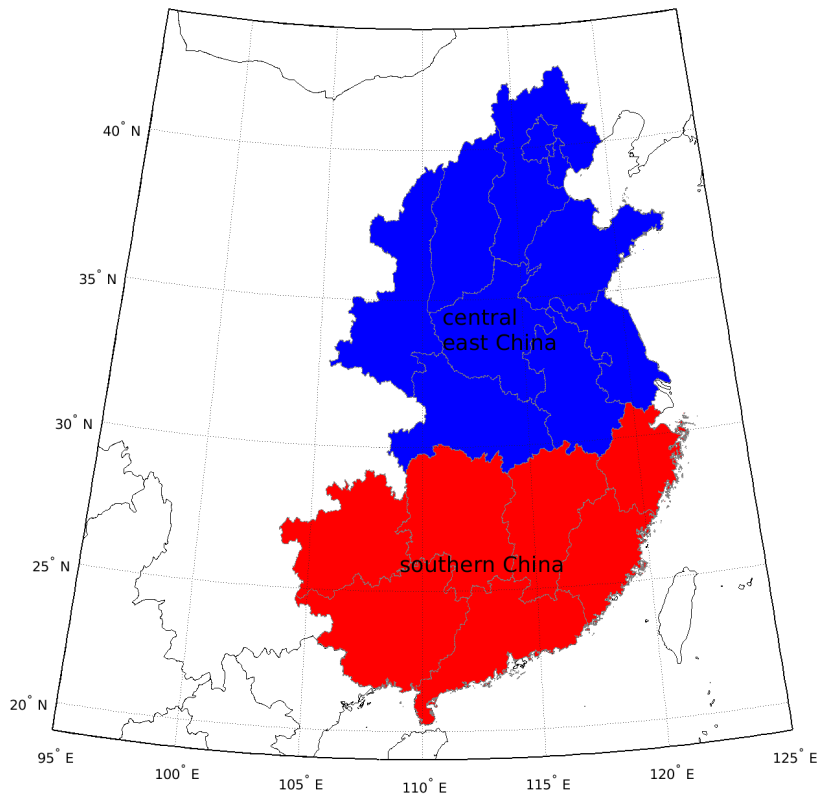
	<b>BC</b>	<b>CO</b>	<b>NH<sub>3</sub></b>	<b>NO<sub>x</sub></b>	<b>OC</b>	<b>SO<sub>2</sub></b>
Agriculture	0	0	61.6	1.1	0	0
Energy	32.6	8	0.4	38.5	28.3	29.4
Industrial	12.7	41.8	6.5	33	5.1	57.3
Ground transportation	8.1	7.2	0.5	17.5	1.7	0.3
RCO	38.1	36.7	5.2	4.2	38.4	12.5
Solvents	0	0	0	0	0	0
Waste	8.5	6.3	25.8	5.2	26.5	0.4
Shipping	0	0	0	0.2	0	0.1
Aircraft	0	0	0	0.2	0	0

686

687 **Table 4. Bottom up biomass Global Fire Assimilation System (Kaiser et al., 2012) burning CO emissions estimates from the**  
 688 **Upper Mekong region (17° N to 24° N, 95° E to 105° E) and AIRS CO over southern China from January 23 to April 8, for**  
 689 **2005-2020.**

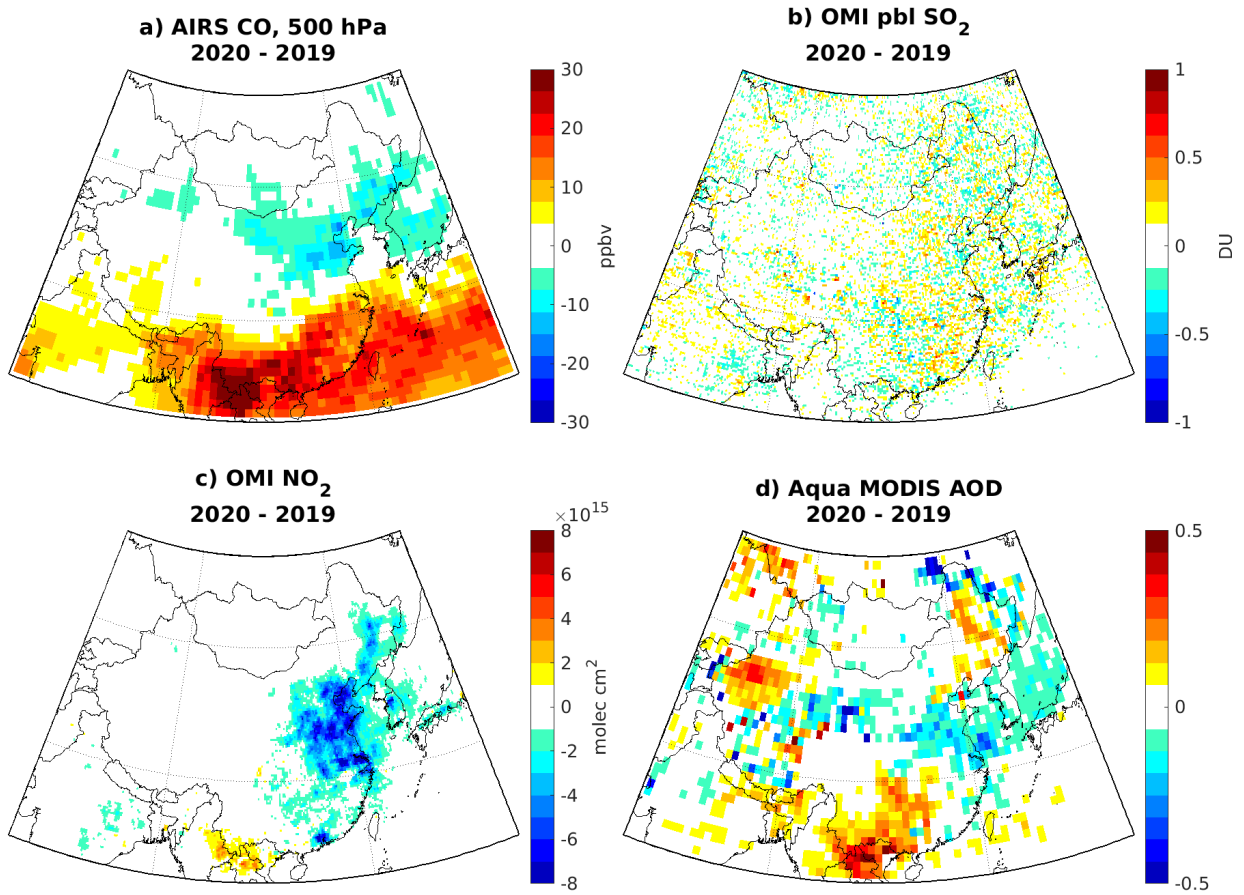
<b>Year</b>	<b>GFAS CO</b>	<b>AIRS CO</b>
	<b>Upper Mekong (KT)</b>	<b>southern China 500 hPa (ppbv)</b>
2005	7977	157
2006	8905	146
2007	15734	165
2008	4542	153
2009	9990	140
2010	14176	149
2011	3591	147
2012	11320	153
2013	8684	145
2014	8722	142
2015	8084	143
2016	9642	149
2017	3736	131
2018	3179	139
2019	6309	128
2020	7871	145

690



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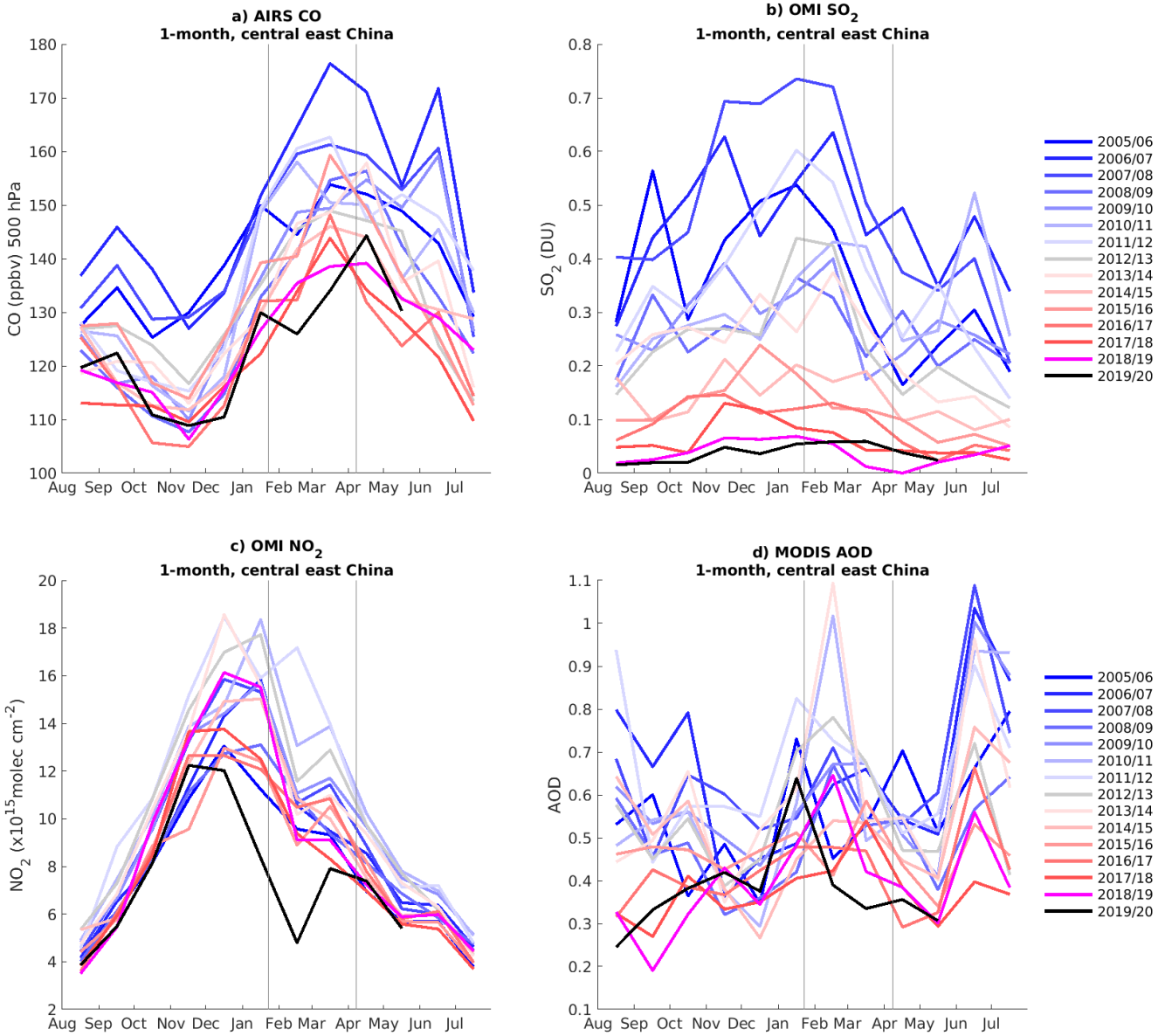
693 **Figure 1. Groupings of provinces for central east China and southern China.**



694

695 **Figure 2. 2020-2019 differences during January 23 to April 8 over China in a) AIRS carbon monoxide (CO) at 500 hPa, b)**  
 696 **OMI PBL sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>), c) OMI tropospheric nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) and d) Aqua MODIS aerosol optical depth**  
 697 **(AOD).**





700 **Figure 3. Monthly mean a) AIRS CO, b) OMI PBL SO<sub>2</sub>, c) OMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> and d) MODIS AOD over central east China since 2005. As in Bauwens et al. (2020), each year starts in August to show any departure from the seasonal cycle during the January 23 to April 8 lockdown period, shown by the thin grey vertical lines.**

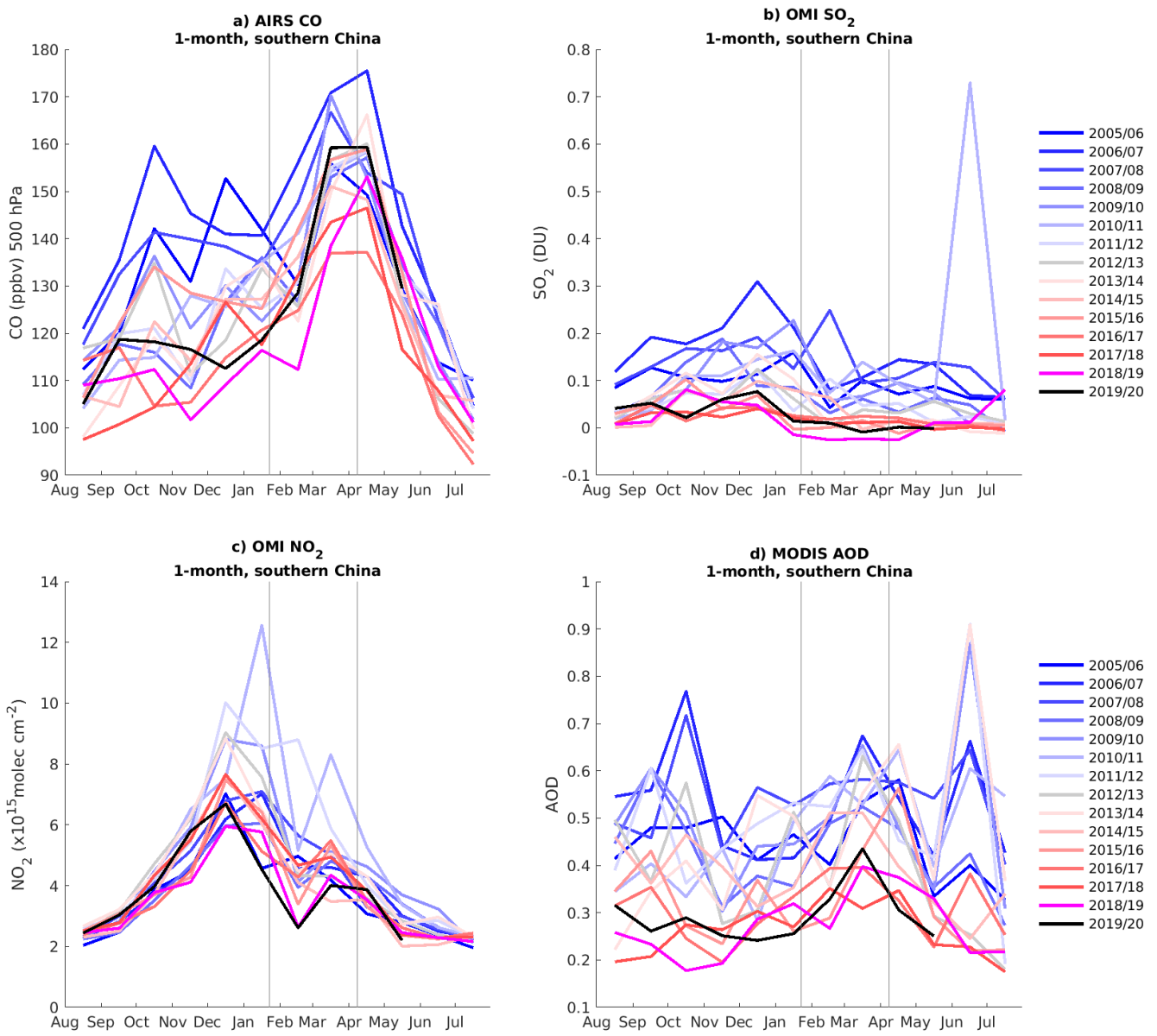
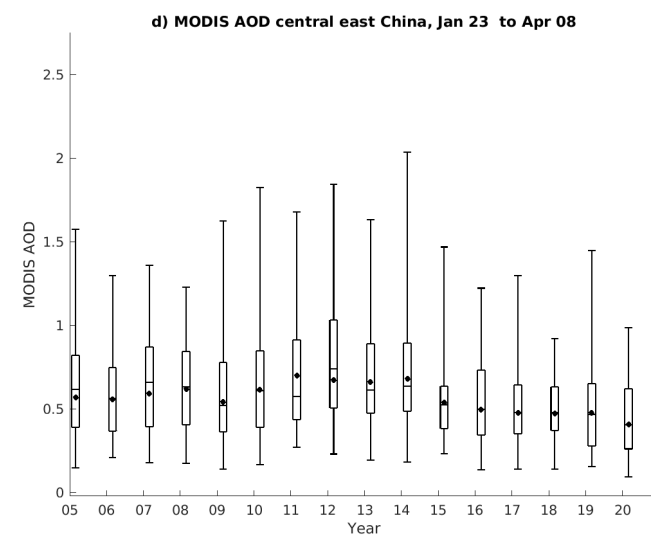
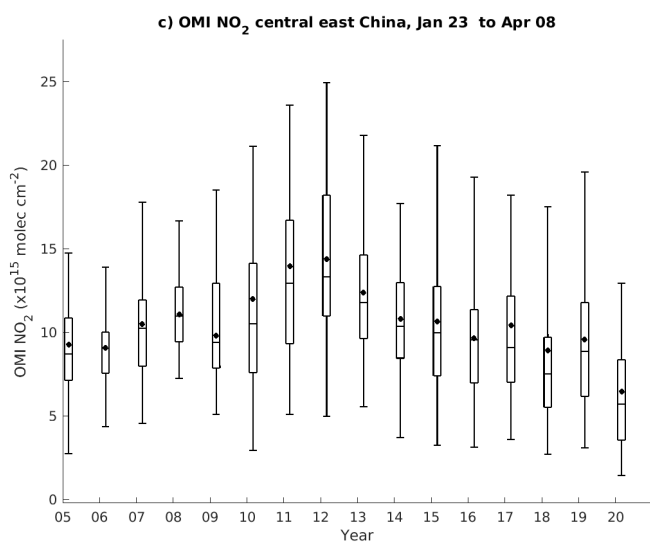
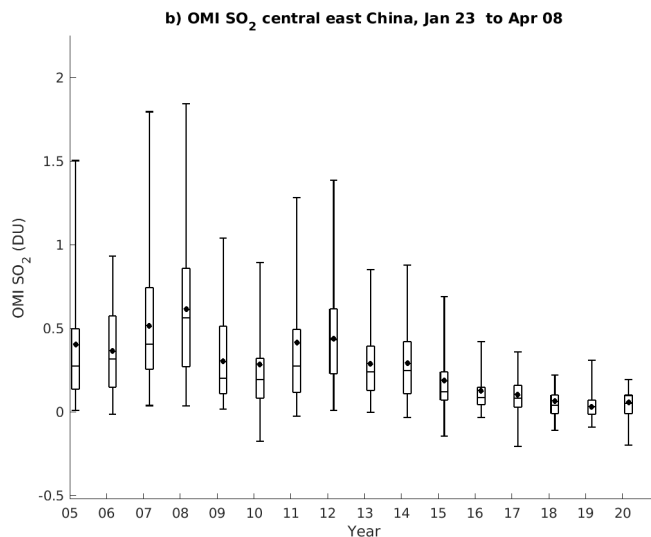
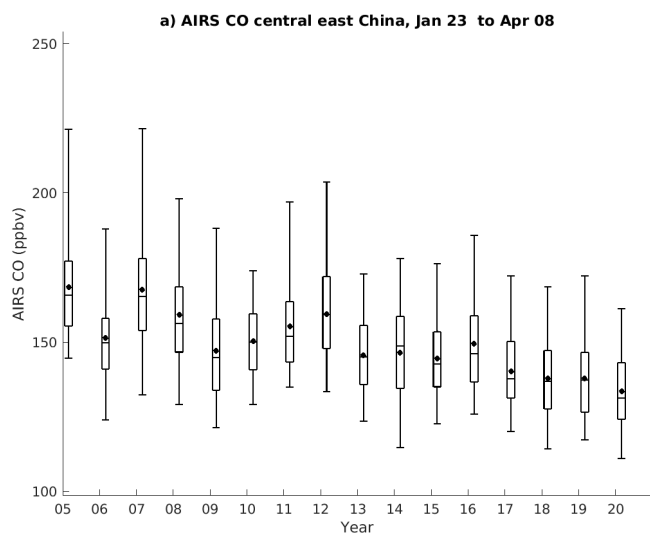
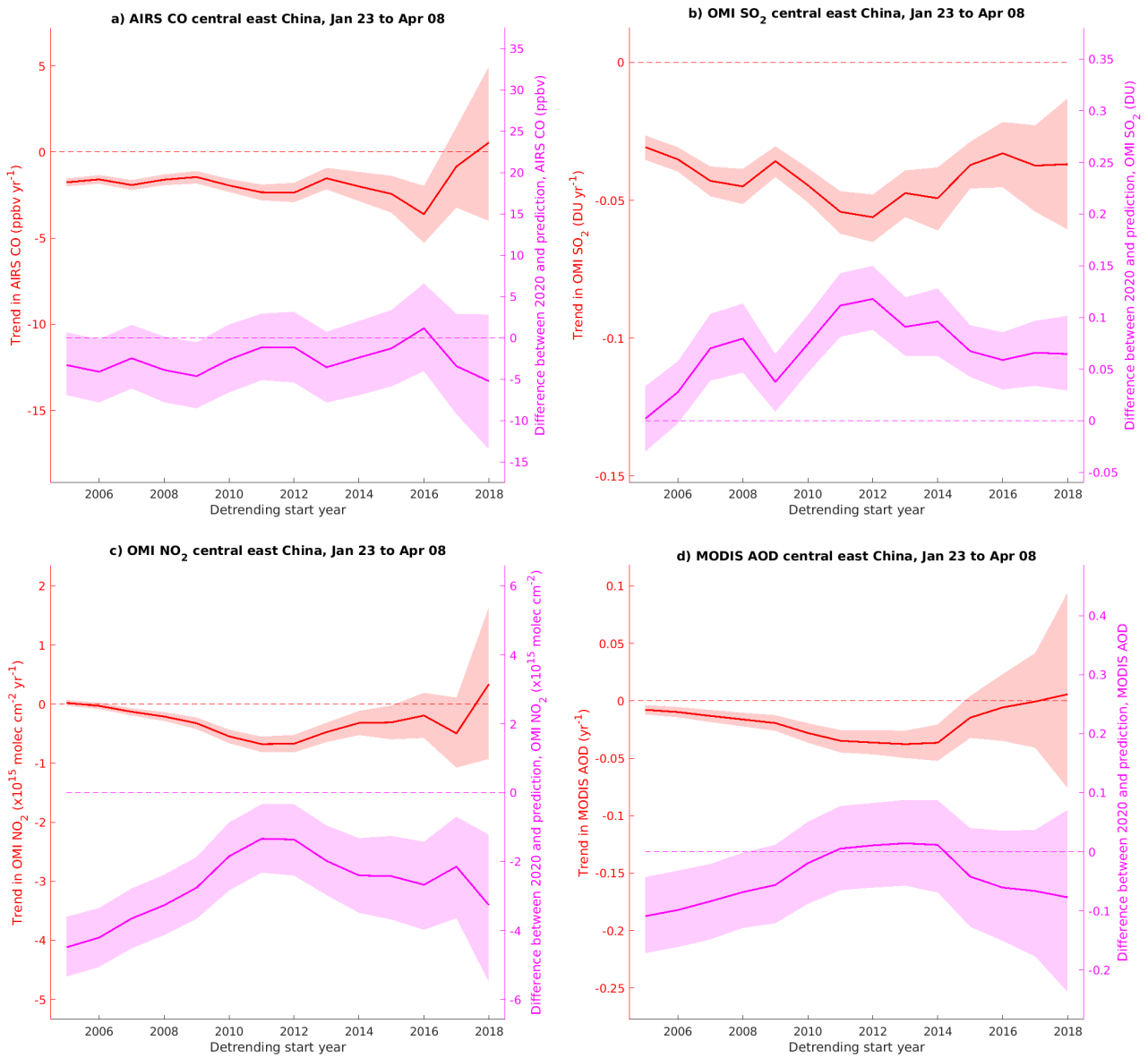


Figure 4. Same as [Figure 3](#), but for southern China.

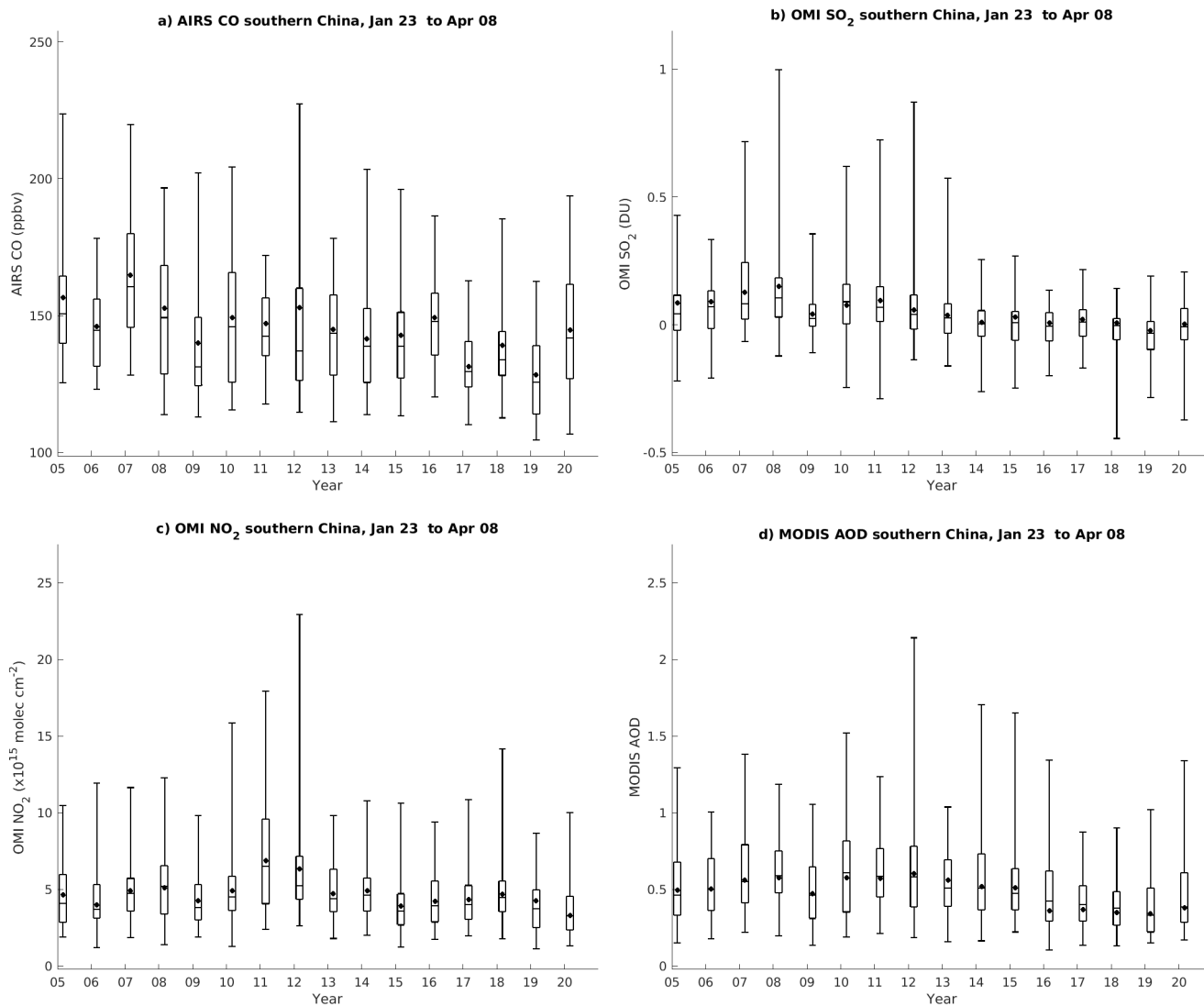


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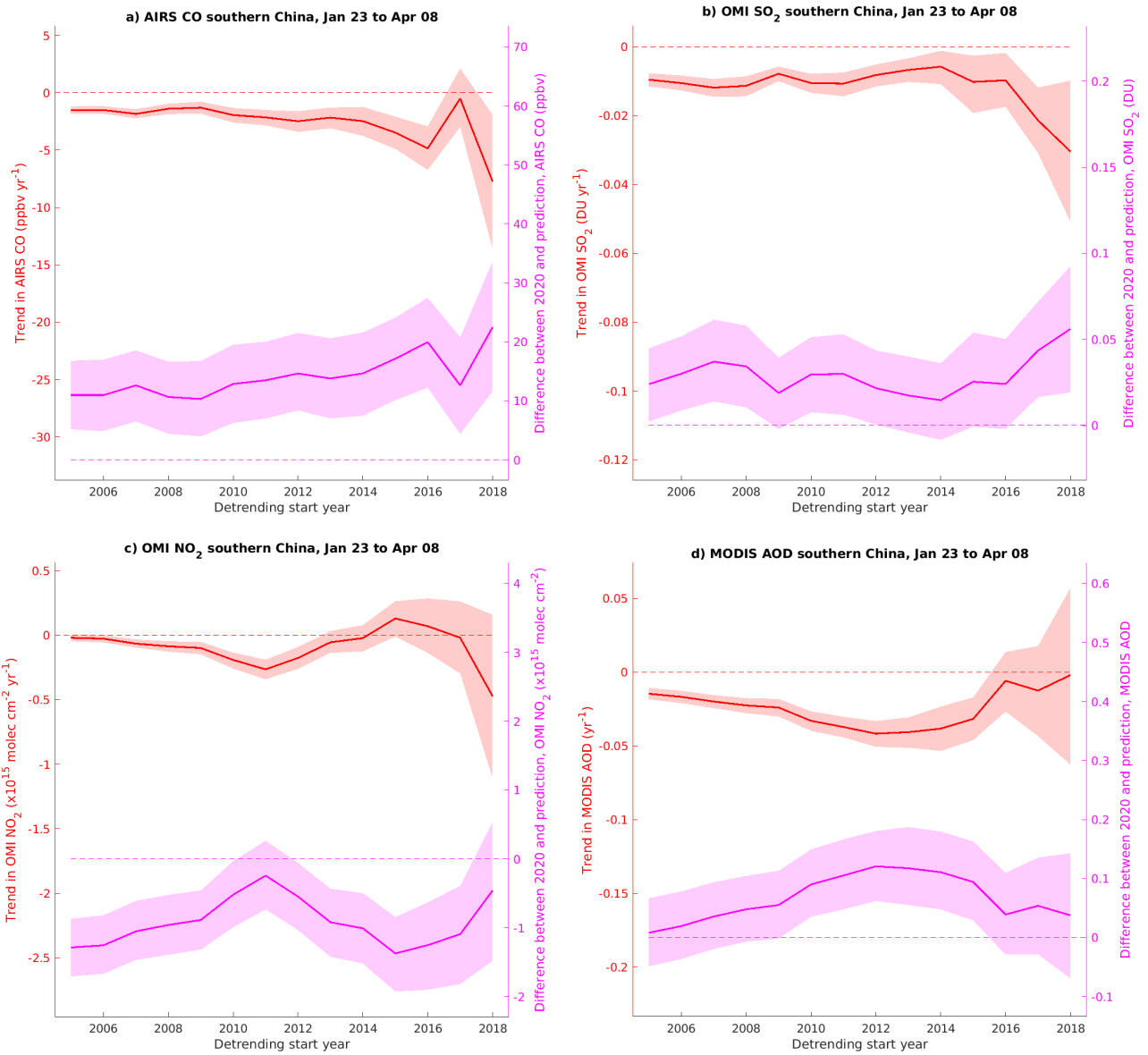
**Figure 5. January 23-April 8 box plots over central East China for a) AIRS CO, b) OMI PBL SO<sub>2</sub>, c) OMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> and d) Aqua and Terra MODIS AOD from 2005 to 2020. The black box plots show the median, interquartile range and 2.5<sup>th</sup> and 97.5<sup>th</sup> percentiles over all daily data, with the mean shown by the black dot.**



710 **Figure 6. Dependence of trends (red) and difference between 2020 observations and predicted value (magenta) on detrending start year over central east China for a) AIRS CO, b) OMI PBL SO<sub>2</sub>, c) OMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> and d) MODIS AOD. The solid line shows the mean of the estimate for each year and the shading shows the 95% confidence interval.**



**Figure 7. Same as Figure 5 but for southern China.**



715

Figure 8. Same as Figure 6, but for southern China.